

TODAY'S SPEECH

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Public Opinion on the Eve of the Outbreak of World War

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MY TOUGHEST SPEECH PROBLEM

— and How I Licked It



A Symposium

*Speech Problems of the Lawyer:
What to Do About Them*

Speech Is Civilization - - Silence Isolates

Today's Speech

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NOVEMBER, 1954

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My Toughest Speech Problem

— and How I Licked It

Just as a discussion of a problem is often more helpful than a lecture by an expert, so is it true that personal experience related by speakers of a wide range of skill may on occasion be more revealing than an article by a skilled speech critic. Now—what was that special problem of yours?

SHARE PROBLEMS WITH AUDIENCE

MY JOB IS THAT OF LIAISON MAN between my advertising agency and some of the companies for which we produce a series of campaigns. One of my most difficult assignments came when I was asked to speak at the sales convention of an oil company and sell their dealers on the campaign my company had mapped out for them. I was warned that they were a highly critical group, and that previous sales talks had left them both amused and very much unconvinced.

I decided against giving them the customary glowing story of our plans and the high objectives we hoped to see accomplished. Instead, I gave a humanized account of how the campaign ideas were born, how they developed, and why we decided on certain lines of approach. By taking them behind the scenes and sharing our problems with them, I got them to relax their suspicion, grow more friendly, and really "buy" our campaign. Some rousing applause and a very nice letter from the president of their company proved that I had really hit the mark.

G. B., Advertising Executive
New York City



BUILD INTEREST — HOLD PROPOSAL TILL END

I HAD BEEN TAUGHT that a good formula for a speech of information was to "Tell them what you're going to tell them; tell them; and tell them what you've told them." In this way, my instructor assured me, they will be sure to grasp your message.

My toughest problem came when I faced a critical audience with a rather startling proposal. I was the last speaker; there had been a dozen

before me. The room was hot and close, the program had lagged overtime and my listeners were tired of speeches, thirsty and hungry.

And so I reversed the formula I had been taught. I hinted at a "startling new idea that you men probably won't accept." I almost baited them by talking down my plan at first, as if it were too provocative for an "average audience." If they became a bit hostile, at least I had their attention. I changed it from a speech of information to one of persuasion, although my original job was merely to explain the proposal, not sell it. It became a different speech than those which had gone before and despite my change in outline, the information got to the audience. But I held it till the end.

I was told it was successful.

Gilbert P. Smith, Managing Editor
The Utica Daily Press



LEARNED TO PRONOUNCE BY LISTENING TO SELF

SPEECH BEING A RATHER SIMPLE WORD to designate a complicated mass of functions, I found it necessary to use self-analysis to isolate individually the various properties that comprise it. My diction was the prime offender. I listened to it as I talked, I recorded it to hear it accurately, and I compared it with good diction.

Attacking the problem at its source, the mouth, I found proper placement of the spoken word (centering the speech) overcame slurring. I made lists of words pertinent to my diction problems such as the "er" of "letter", "father", etc. (I said "letta"), and the short "a" of "man", "can", etc. (I had pronounced "man" using the "a" as in "rare"). Like some people of the New York area, I talked

too fast, and lost the correct pronunciation of words by running them together. I slowed my speech down. Finally, I over-pronounced words and tempered them to their most efficient standard sounds, and with much practice I had the problem licked.

—Don Dubbins, an actor who played in the movies "From Here to Eternity," and "Caine Mutiny," and in the stage production of "Mister Roberts."



TWO THINGS WRONG WITH "DISCUSSION" MEETINGS

"SOMETHING'S THE MATTER with our discussion meetings," the ladies from the local chapter of the League of Women Voters announced as they seated themselves in my office. Each year, I was told, League members are invited to attend what they are told will be "discussion" sessions on the study topics for the year. A moderator presides at these meetings and a "resource person" presents a carefully prepared report on the conclusions of a selected study group which she has been attending for several weeks. The "resource report" concluded, the moderator invites discussion and comment from the floor. A few questions and statements of fact may follow and the meeting adjourns. My callers reported that out of more than two hundred members, these "discussion" meetings seldom drew more than twenty and often as few as a dozen women.

I asked how the "resource reports" were presented. "Usually they read them," was the reply. I asked whether the policy of the local chapter was ever changed as the result of a "discussion" meeting. "No," I was told. "That's not the object. These aren't policy meetings, they're to inform our members."

The problem, I concluded was two-fold. While listeners universally demand that speakers think and talk "just for us," only the most able speakers can create this illusion while reading from manuscript. The League was doing nothing to insure that the "resource reports" would be vigorous, warm, interesting. Moreover, to announce a "discussion" when no decision is possible — or even wanted — is to promise food, then snatch it away. Without power to decide, there is no motivation to discuss.

Either impersonal, indifferent speaking or a

promise of "discussion" where the conditions for decision making cannot exist would have been enough to keep listeners and participants away. Together, they assured that attention would be unrewarding labor and that no idea should be born.

C.C.A. Professor of Speech
Cornell University



ANALYZED WRONG AUDIENCE

I'VE HAD ALL THE USUAL SPEECH PROBLEMS — stage fright, not knowing enough about how to organize a speech, tendency to talk too long, weak conclusions, etc. — but my toughest specific problem is one on which I goofed.

Several years ago while I was lecturing for a national lecture bureau I arrived one afternoon in a southern city to speak to a girl's preparatory school. Visiting the campus and talking to faculty and students, I was impressed with a feeling that the girls led a restrained and overly-disciplined life and needed some cheering up. Hence, I threw away the serious talk I had planned, and developed a rollicking speech of entertainment.

As I had expected, the girls loved it — but after it was over I was invited into the President's office for a solemn and disapproving session with the faculty. Later, the lecture bureau received a letter expressing keen disappointment. I'm still not sure I would not do the same thing again! But, as a paid lecturer, I made the mistake of trying to please the larger audience rather than the small management group that paid the bills. It is not a bad idea for any speaker to remember that "audience" is a very inclusive term; and that often a choice has to be made as to which part of the audience is most important for the purpose he may have in mind. This "key segment" may, on occasion, be only one individual, or only a small minority of the total group.

Yes, you guessed it — I changed lecture bureaus shortly afterwards!

R. T. O.



WAIT — RELAX!

I AM A STAMMERER OF LONG STANDING who has more or less overcome his difficulty. About seven years ago, I was called upon to present a techni-

cal paper at a national engineering conference.

The night before my scheduled appearance found me almost hysterical with anxiety and fear in the belief that I would be unable to deliver the paper coherently.

When my name was announced the next day, I blindly managed to find my way to the brightly lit stage, trembling all over and certain that I could not deliver the talk.

I placed my text on the lectern, carefully extracted a handkerchief and deliberately began to clean my glasses. The restless buzz of the audience ceased as I blew on the lenses, held them up to the light, and flicked off non-existent pieces of lint. Finally, long after quiet had been established, and after the glasses had been cleaned and adjusted to my satisfaction, I felt able to proceed — and delivered the paper with no difficulty.

I think that the effect I sought was to make the audience wait, and to give myself an opportunity to adjust to the environment — which I did.

A. W., *Chemical Engineer*
New York City



NO MORE MEMORIZING OF SPEECHES

This happened more than twenty-five years ago, which rather dates me, but the incident is still fresh in my memory. At that time I was president of a young people's organization which annually gave a concert in the Brooklyn Academy of Music. During the intermission in the program the president was called upon to give a little address of welcome, expressing appreciation for patronage, and informing the audience that the proceeds from the concert were being devoted to an excellent charity — namely, summer camp for under-privileged children.

I appeared on the platform bedecked in white tie and started to give my talk, which I had written out and memorized. I thought it was going along perfectly until I forgot one word — and then I came to an abrupt stop to try to recall it, but couldn't. The only thing to do was to proceed extemporaneously, which I did; and according to my good wife the second part was better than the first. Since then I have never memorized a speech. While this does not make me an orator, at least it does not restrict the flow

of language by reason of a hurdle presented by one lone, forgotten word in a sequence.

Clinton C. Johnson, *Vice-President*
Chemical Bank and Trust Company
New York, N. Y.



LOVE WILL FIND A WAY

My most difficult speech problem is communicating with my wife—she whose logic I do not understand. In other life situations one might readily say, "Let's talk this out and understand it." How distant that procedure can be in the milieu of marriage where disagreement and even a certain antagonism may often be part of love. The problem seems never-ending. It is a fortunate thing that I love her so much, for as the poet so well said, "Love will find a way"—even when communications collapse.

Harold O'Brien



HOW TO GET JANE TO TALK

Jane would not talk — and that was my problem; one who listened in a group whose business it was to talk!

In the fall of 1950 I was put in charge of all day session speech classes in the Division of Vocational Studies at Brooklyn College. These classes were, and are, accredited toward the Associate of Arts degree in a two year curriculum and draw people primarily interested in business careers.

Normally we can expect a certain degree of reticence on the part of students but after one or two sessions they seem to speak quite readily. Jane could not! Not that she didn't want to but everytime she left her seat to face the class she'd grow flushed, unable to utter a sound except "I can't" and sit down again.

It did not take long to realize that Jane was not faking but did have a very real problem; she was a person choked with fear and needed help. I decided that the only way to pull her out of it was through patience and explanation.

I spoke to several members of the class about the need to "protect Jane" and enlisted their aid. Jane received substantial encouragement everytime she rose to her feet.

About a month before the term ended Jane

took the floor and spoke fluently for six minutes which was a triumph for her. The barrier had been breached; patience and class cooperation had turned the tide.

Paul Brownstone



OVER-COMING STAGE FRIGHT

MY MOST DIFFICULT SPEECH PROBLEM has always been stage-fright. For a long time I struggled with this problem; when I finally came to a true understanding of it, the solution was simple. This understanding came to me as part of a larger awareness; *i. e.*, the true relationship between myself and other people. So far as the speech situation was concerned, I realized my true relationship with my audience.

I found that I had always been more or less concerned with the impression I was making and with what my audience was thinking of me. In my new awareness I realized that my audience was concerned not with me but with what I had to give it. The realization immediately freed me to concentrate on what I had to give and how best to give it—to the exclusion of any preoccupation with myself, with the inevitable result that stage-fright died for lack of something to feed upon.

If ever now I have a touch of that unpleasant sensation, I stop and face myself; I know that my view has become slightly distorted, that all I need do is grasp again my true relationship with my audience, and I shall again be free of stage-fright.

Laura Bauer



CONFIDENCE THROUGH KNOWLEDGE

MY MOST DIFFICULT SPEECH PROBLEM was to conquer the fear of standing before an audience and presenting my thoughts. In fact, this fear led to a minor speech impediment—stammering.

In 1951 I was assigned to a job which required that I spend six hours per week briefing newly assigned personnel as to the reasons for the Air Force Security Program and the important rules of security. I had no previous training in this subject or in public speaking.

My first step was to learn as much about the program as possible. This I did through training films, talks with various officials in Intelligence Division, Office of Base Security, etc. I had no trouble conversing with one person, and as the subject gradually became familiar, I felt at ease talking about it.

The second step was to arrange for my first audience. This, I restricted to only two people who had never before been associated with the Air Force. I outlined the subject very briefly. The "audience" and the instructor held an hour-long guided discussion on the subject. I was at ease and the audience was at ease. A test the next day established that the audience had retained 85% of the information presented. Thereafter, audiences of 100 or 200 persons were not in the least frightening—there was no evidence of stammering. I had learned that "book" preparation was not adequate. Complete familiarity with the subject was the answer to my speech problem.

Kenneth C. Thayer
Utica, N. Y.



To You, — Our Readers

WHY NOT SEND IN A BRIEF STATEMENT

of your own speech problem
— and how you licked it — or perhaps how it
licked you?

In this way, we can help one another,
and get help ourselves.



SPEECH

and the Will to Work

By O. HOYT TRIBBLE

How to prevent work stoppage, slow down, feather-bedding — how to maintain high morale, a sense of partnership between management and labor: these are major jobs for speech in industry.

What connection is there between, on the one hand, what managers say and how they say it, and, on the other, the will to work?

This question pinpoints two notable features of the current industrial scene. One is what has been called the number one worst job being done today by managers, *viz.*, oral communication; the other is attitudes toward work. Research and experience strongly suggest that the two are intimately related.

The author has asked many supervisors in industry, "What in your job irritates you most?" A typical reply has been, "Having trouble getting men to do their work." In line with what Alexander Heron calls the "withholding of effort," this is a prominent aspect of work situations today. It ranges all the way from outright refusal to work, in the form of the strike, through conscious restriction of production, to varieties of "soldiering" on the job.

Historically, we have tried to motivate men to work voluntarily, cooperatively and more efficiently through the use of money. Much effort has been expended on devising elaborate wage, incentive and benefit schemes. Yet strikes, attempts to restrict production, attitudes of reluctance to work are occurring at a time when the financial reward for work is at the highest level in our history. It appears that our estimate of what men want from work has been inadequate.

Fifty manufacturing executives were recently questioned as to what is of importance in securing worker productivity. Forty-four per cent of them replied, "Money alone is the answer." Another 28% responded, "Money is by far the chief thing but some importance is to be attached to less tangible things." The remaining 28% said, "Money is important but beyond a certain point it will not produce results."

The last opinion, reflecting the ancient insight that men do not live by bread alone, is pointed up

by what employees have said is of importance to them in their work. Extensive research has shown that along with wages (plus allied factors such as benefits and job security) men place a premium on the values of being satisfied in the job, working in an organization of which they can be proud, having good relations with their superiors and fellow workers, the chance to use their own ideas and the opportunity to make suggestions. The human needs which these latter factors reveal are not met in the stark relationship of "your labor for our money."

Apparently—without, of course, discounting the necessity of financial compensation—a revision in our strategy of getting men to work is called for. If we are to heed the findings of current research, the background and techniques of the new approach will have to be "employee-centered," not "production-centered."

The objective of any manager is to secure production, on schedule, and to standards of quality and quantity. A production-centered manager exerts constant pressure to get out the job; he emphasizes that men should stay in their places and really work; he is likely to make frequent checks to see that they do so; and he tends to be a stickler for 100% attendance and punctuality and discount failures in this respect as alibis; he makes much of production charts and reports of scrap and error.

The employee-centered manager, on the other hand remembers that people are not machines. His question is, "How can I deal with my people so that they *want* to cooperate willingly in efficient work?" He finds out a man's interests and abilities and tries to locate him in a job for which he is fitted. He considers the personalities of his men and attempts to place those together who like each other. He knows the outside interests of his people, their family and community status, and if any problem arises, he listens to them in

conferences and gives possible help. He points out ways a man can develop his "know-how" and aids in getting him promoted.

It was found in one investigation that 80% of the supervisors of high-producing sections had employee-centered attitudes and methods, while 70% of the supervisors of low-producing sections were production-centered.

In light of these basic considerations, what practices are available to managers for changing attitudes toward work? We may anticipate by saying that a greater measure of employee participation in work must be made possible. We have lauded the idea of cooperative teamwork; we now have to afford employees the opportunity of *being on the team*. It is here that attitudes and practices in oral communication are highly significant.

1. We need, for one thing, to take another look at how we induct and indoctrinate new employees. "I think I am going to like it here" is how we would like them to feel after the introductory hours. How important is our speech for that impression! Some interviewers and supervisors and other managers seem to look upon the new man as just another production machine. Verbal information given him is largely limited to where and when he works and the date he gets paid. He may well get the 'small cog in a big wheel' feeling. One group of supervisors suggested a tour for the new employee in which he would see and have explained to him the plant production process and how the job he would do fitted into the whole. One new employee was almost thrown out by plant guards because in first reporting for work he went in the wrong gate. One of the guards shouted to the other, "Hey, Jim, imagine that guy trying to get in here without a badge!" We can hinder or promote the will to work of a new recruit by what we say and how we say it.

2. We encourage participation by letting employees in on things and keeping them 'in the know.' One characteristic of the successful team is that the members know what is going on.

Managers can ill afford not to talk frequently with employees about matters vital to them. Research indicates that they wish to know much more than the essentials told them when they were hired. They want to know about the company itself, its products, policies; reasons for changes in methods; how their jobs fit into the whole; income, profits, losses; outlook for the business; etc.

We consider the unrealistic ideas of employees

about the company profit figure to be stupid, yet managers seem strangely reluctant to discuss the matter. The author suggested to one executive that his supervisors in their training program might want such information. He replied, "They shouldn't ask such questions; they ought to be thankful they have a job." By contrast, another plant manager, recognizing that waste reduction cannot be adequately handled by his foremen without basic information, makes it a point to discuss with them periodically the standing of the company in respect to costs and profits. His attitude of willingness to talk and the face-to-face discussions with his men about company "secrets" partly account for their willingness to work.

We also decry an annual demand for more money. But is not this lack of realism due in part to the fact that employees are not given opportunity by managers to talk over how much is left after all expenses have been paid? The *will to work* can be hindered by *unwillingness to talk* about things our employees consider important.

Giving information has other aspects. When one supervisor reported to his superior that he was keeping his own men informed about changes in their jobs, his boss exclaimed, "Don't tell 'em nothin'!" In a company where the author has conducted training, a group of supervisors complained that they were not kept informed of developments. One of them who had been listening remarked, "You fellows don't go in to town often enough." Could some plants operate without the grapevine?

The will to work can be promoted by letting employees in on intimate company affairs and by willingness to talk over with them things about *their* organization.

3. Cooperation, the "team spirit," voluntary effort, are enhanced when periodically we let employees know how they are doing. The writer submitted to a group of supervisors the question, "During the past year, has your performance been talked over with you by your immediate superior?" Anonymous replies were: "Yes," 34%; "No, and it doesn't matter to me," 12%; "No, but I think it should have been," 50%. From the same group, in regard to how they thought they stood with Top Management, replies of "Not sure" were as follows: respecting Job Performance, 35%; Job Security, 39%; Chance of Advancement, 72%. It is not hard to surmise that the will to work of supervisors with such feelings might be impaired.

But the case is the same with any employee. A

foreman known to the author encourages his men at intervals to rate their own performance. He then has talks with them in which their and his ratings are compared. Sometimes he changes his rating to conform to theirs; in others he helps employees identify their deficiencies and plan improvement. This foreman's work-group productivity is high. Talking over with employees how they stand stimulates participation.

4. If we managers really want willing, efficient teamwork, we must give our employees the right to think, the opportunity to express the results of their thinking, and let our decisions reflect it. This calls for aggressive solicitation of employee opinion and suggestions. It means willingness to listen when a man wants to talk—listening is eloquent communication. It means talking over with him both his good and poor ideas. It means holding group conferences with employees over work problems for which we do not have answers and requesting their help. The will to work is released when men consider themselves rated as mature, thinking individuals whose opinion is sought.

Other basic considerations could be added to the foregoing. For instance, managers need to ask, What is the relation of job training to employee attitudes toward work? Here, what we say and how we say it is crucial, for the content and the manner of its presentation in job instruction

largely determine whether a man gets a real "handle" on the work he is to do, or whether he is left confused. Or again, how does a clear understanding by employees of their responsibilities and duties affect how they feel toward the organization, their superiors and equals and their jobs? A man knows these only to the extent they are explained to him. And yet again, how is the kind and consistency of discipline related to a man's willingness to work? In disciplining, a premium is on what the superior says and how he says it.

Enough has been said to indicate that we can no longer rely on money as the sole motivating factor in the work situation. We must release the energies of men, but more particularly by tapping resources that are peculiarly human. People will participate in a project if they feel themselves necessary to it and are allowed to make contributions toward its fulfillment.

Through what we say and how we say it, we managers can promote willing, cooperative, efficient work—by getting people properly started in their organization; letting them know clearly what is expected of them; giving them adequate training; keeping them informed of what is going on; encouraging them to think and offer suggestions; letting them know periodically how they are doing.

Of such things is the will to work compounded. A major key for its release is oral communication.



IN THE NEXT ISSUE —

Look for an article by Raymond Barnard packed with specific suggestions

on how to use proved speech techniques to

step up efficiency in plant operation.



OVERCOMING

the Handicap of Deafness

By POWRIE V. DOCTOR

*Editor: American Annals of the Deaf
Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C.*

Nearly everyone has, at sometime, encountered a deaf person and attempted to carry on a conversation with him by means of speech and speechreading. Invariably the reaction has been that the speech of the deaf person was not as intelligible as that of a hearing person, and the question arises, "Why not?" It must be remembered that you and I can speak as we do because we hear other people speak. We speak English because we have heard English spoken all our lives. If we had heard nothing except Chinese we would probably speak Chinese.

One of the most difficult problems in the field of deafness for the average laymen to comprehend is this relationship between hearing and speech. One of the milestones in the history of the education of the deaf was when Cardano in 1561 made the discovery that there was nothing necessarily wrong with a man's speech organs simply because he was deaf. For so many centuries men had believed that if a man could not hear, he necessarily could not speak. Today, fortunately, the clinics in colleges, universities, and hospitals are called Speech and Hearing Clinics and not Clinics for the Deaf, or Clinics for the Hard of Hearing. Thus, the name implies a multiple handicap, one concerning hearing and one concerning speech.¹ However, such clinics in stressing speech and hearing must not be misled into believing that speech and hearing are the only problems of which they are still so keenly aware.

The teaching of speech to a child born deaf is without doubt the most difficult job in the educational world. The person who becomes deaf at the age of sixteen has speech and language patterns already established. He will probably need corrective speech because he cannot hear his own voice and correct his own pronunciation. A child becoming deaf at the age of six years has heard speech but has developed only a limited vocabulary; hence his pronunciation mastery is not exten-

sive. The task of teaching him will be infinitely more difficult than teaching the person deafened at the age of sixteen.

But the supreme task is to teach a child who has been born deaf and who has never heard sound.² Virtually his only conception of sound is through the visual and tactile approach. When we realize that a child born deaf often comes to preschool or to primary department in a school for the deaf not even knowing that he, himself, has a name, let alone knowing there is such a thing as sound, then we realize what a miracle it is that so many deaf people have as good speech today as they do. It is then that we can see what a supreme accomplishment it is for Helen Keller to speak as well as she does, having been deprived of both sight and hearing from such an early age.

However, another mistake so frequently made by the average person in regard to the deaf is in assuming that, when speech is acquired by the deaf, all of his handicaps have been removed. Deafness, in itself, is responsible for many things besides the inability to hear. It is an educational handicap, especially in acquiring language. It is often a social handicap, because even a deaf person with good speech frequently finds himself alone in a gathering of hearing people, as it is difficult to follow a rapid conversation when a number of people are involved. However, despite all these difficulties, hundreds of deaf people overcome their handicap of deafness and lead normal, well adjusted lives. They mix socially and in work, not only with deaf people but with hearing people.

The first school for the deaf in the United States was located in Cobbs, Va. It was established in 1815 by a member of the Braidwood family from England, a family with a long history in the teaching of the deaf. Braidwood's school in Virginia was an oral school. It ceased operation after two years.

The first permanent free public residential school for the deaf in the United States was established in Hartford, Conn., in 1817, by the Rev. Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet. He had become interested in the deaf because of the deaf daughter of his neighbor, Dr. Mason Cogswell. A group of citizens of the community had collected a sum of money and had sent him to Europe. After failing to attain his goal in England, Gallaudet went to Paris on the invitation of the Abbe Sicard, where he studied at the school for the deaf in Paris that had been established by the Abbe de l'Epee. The system used at that school at the time was the manual method, that is a combination of the language of the signs and the manual alphabet. The teaching of speech and speechreading were well known in the French school at that time, but there were not enough trained teachers to make use of it. Also, it was felt that the deaf child needed to acquire so much in such a short time that it was better to teach him subject matter, manually, than to teach him only speech, which might or might not be intelligible.

The growth of the teaching of speech to the deaf in the United States has been gradual, but has increased continually. During the years following the establishment of the first school at Hartford, Conn., speech and speech reading had begun to be offered as a single course in the schools for the deaf. The first fulltime teacher of speech, or of articulation as it was called at that time, in a school for the deaf in the United States was appointed in 1857, in the American Schools for the Deaf established in 1867, in Northampton, Mass., and the Lexington School for the Deaf, in New York City, in 1867. The Horace Mann Day School for the Deaf, an oral school, was established in Boston in 1869.

According to the January, 1954, *American Annals of the Deaf*, 22,100 pupils were enrolled in schools and classes for the deaf in the United States during the past year. Of this number 14,157 were enrolled in residential schools for the deaf, 1,954 in day schools, 4,046 in day classes, and 1,943 in private and denominational schools and classes. Of the 14,157 in residential schools, 9,258 were being taught by the Oral Method, 1,142 by the Non-oral Method, and 3,771 by the Combined Method. In the Combined Method the teacher speaks and at the same time uses the language of signs and the manual alphabet. Also, if the student can benefit from the use of a hearing aid, he is encouraged to use it. Of the 1,954 in day schools

and 4,046 in day classes, all were being taught by the oral method. Of the 1,943 in private and denominational schools, all were being taught by the oral method. A question always being asked is why all deaf people cannot be taught speech and speech-reading. There are always a certain number who cannot benefit by this method, and as no person should be deprived of an education merely because of his inability to acquire information through a certain method, the Combined System is used in nearly all state residential schools. The term Combined System means an arrangement in a school where both oral classes and manual classes are conducted.

In the January '54, *Annals*, 164 Speech and Hearing Clinics were reported in Colleges and Universities in the United States and Canada. There were 45 such clinics reported in hospitals in the United States and Canada, and 40 such clinics in schools for the deaf. The services rendered by such clinics are remedial work in speech and hearing, audiology, mobile speech and hearing units, hearing aid, otology, hearing tests, hearing aid selection, otological examination, auditory training, speech training, speech-reading, social service, vocational counseling, job placement, social programs, classes for parents of preschool children, classes for deaf and/or hard-of-hearing adults, and classes for deaf and/or hard-of-hearing children.

During the past half century, among the greatest factors in helping people with impaired hearing in overcoming their handicap have been the increased use of hearing aids, the use of standardized tests in schools for the deaf, and the awareness of parents of what they can do to help a hearing-handicapped child.

Without doubt the hearing aid is one of the great achievements in the field of hearing in this century. However, it must be remembered that because countless hard-of-hearing people, or some deaf pupils with some residual hearing, are helped by hearing aids, it does not mean that hearing aids will necessarily help all deaf people. Of the 22,100 pupils reported as being enrolled in schools and classes for the deaf in the January *Annals*, 8,007 were reported as using a group hearing aid and 5,105 were reported as using an individual hearing aid. A totally deaf person should no more be criticized for not wearing a hearing aid than a totally blind person for not wearing spectacles.

The increased use of standardized tests in schools for the deaf has helped greatly, especially

in making comparisons between hearing pupils and deaf pupils. The great difficulty in drawing valid conclusions from such tests is the language factor. Great as the handicap is in speech for the deaf, because of the lack of hearing, the handicap in the field of language caused by the lack of hearing is just as great.

The great awareness on the part of parents as to what they can do to help their deaf children has increased much in the past twenty years. Many schools now have a Parent-Program where lectures and demonstrations are given in an effort to enlist the aid of parents, especially in the field of speech. The John Tracy Clinic in Los Angeles, founded by Mrs. Spencer Tracy, has done outstanding pioneer work in this particular field.

The great need in the field of the education of the deaf today is for well-trained, well-qualified teachers. This has always been true in the field of deafness since the first school was founded in Hartford, Conn., in 1817. At present there are twenty-one training centers in the United States for teachers of the deaf. In June, 1954, there were 129 graduates of these departments. This replaces

about half of the number who annually retire or resign. One reason for so few teachers going into this field of teaching is the great amount of special training necessary.

If the present trend continues, the latter half of the twentieth century should see closer cooperation between medical schools, hospitals, and schools and classes for the deaf, and an increase in the scope of speech and hearing clinics in colleges, universities, and hospitals. All such trends will help to carry on services for helping people overcome the handicap of deafness, a trend established in America with the founding of the permanent school for the deaf in the United States, in Hartford, Conn., in 1817, and with the founding of the first college for the deaf, Gallaudet College, in Washington, D. C., in 1864.

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HOW TO TALK TO THE DEAF

★ Rupert Hughes, famous author of the life of George Washington, ★
 ★ drew from his own experience with partial deafness to advise people ★
 ★ how to talk to their deafened friends: "In ordinary conversation, few ★
 ★ people make any effort to focus their tones or articulate distinctly. We ★
 ★ just wobble our lips and let the words spill. But when we want to ★
 ★ convey a confidential remark to someone, we point the tongue and speak ★
 ★ with great distinctness. That is why a stage whisper carries so far. So, ★
 ★ when you are trying to slip a message past a deaf person, you do the ★
 ★ very thing he has given up imploring you to do; you speak distinctly." ★

—From "New Ears for Old," *Liberty Magazine*, January 26, 1935

THE LAWYER

and the Community

By ROBERT T. OLIVER

A discussion addressed to lawyers, but perhaps of interest to all who deal with the public, of the relationships between their public speaking and their general success.

FROM LAW SCHOOL TO PRACTICE is a long jump. Many a young lawyer has bemoaned the gulf between the two. The school laid the basis for passing the bar examinations, thereby making a professional career possible. Then came the momentous day for renting an office and hiring a sign painter to letter your name on the ground glass panel of the door, with the symbol of hope and promise underneath—"Attorney at Law."

Now come the problems the law professors left you to solve for yourself. How do you go about getting clients? How do you go about greeting and dealing with the first ones who come into your office? What fee do you charge, and how do you inform the client of the fee? Should your manner be casual and friendly or reserved, objective, and professional? What kind of questions do you ask to get the interview started and to gain the information you need? What do you say and how do you say it? How do you talk with these people who come? And always the even more basic question, how do you get them to start coming?

For lawyers whose practice is firmly established, these initial doubts and questions may seem a long way in the past. For young lawyers who start out as clerks or partners in established firms, there is friendly counsel available for meeting such problems. But rare and perhaps non-existent is the practicing attorney who ever comes to the point in his career when he can honestly feel that his speech problems have all been solved.

As a lawyer you have got to be able to speak well; you have no choice. The demands are always upon you—in your office, in the courtroom, and in the community. Interviewing clients demands facility in handling the business con-

ference; examining and cross-examining witnesses demands expertness in developing a pattern of questions; preparation of a case is similar in many respects to the preparation of a sound argumentative speech; presentation of a case in court is a specialized form of public speaking. Like the preacher and the school-teacher, the lawyer earns his living to a considerable extent by his ability as a speaker. But this is only one aspect of his many needs for ability in speech.

NON-PROFESSIONAL NEEDS FOR SPEECH

The lawyer is prohibited by his own professional ethics and by the custom of the community from advertising his services. If he suggests to prospective clients the advantages of instituting a suit, he finds himself labelled as "an ambulance chaser." While the merchant carries full-page ads in the local paper and the salesman carries his sample case around with him, the lawyer is expected to sit in his office, demurely waiting until someone may decide to consult with him about a legal problem. The doctor and the dentist have clients driven to them by aches and pains. But the prospective clients of the lawyer often do not even realize they are in need of legal counsel until after some fortuitous circumstance results in their going to an attorney to discuss their difficulties. Many people think of "going to law" as a last desperate resort, little realizing that securing legal advice may be the best way of preventing or avoiding the very developments which they dread.

Under such circumstances, the lawyer must depend upon indirect means of making himself and his special capabilities known to the community. He has to advertise his personality since he cannot advertise his professional services. One of the

best ways of accomplishing this is by fairly active participation and leadership in public meetings. And it is chiefly through skill in speech that such participation is most readily achieved.

The lawyer's own nature is another reason for his need of ability as a public speaker. The very fact of having chosen the law as a profession is an indication that the typical lawyer has an abiding interest in the problems of the community and in devising or applying means of dealing with them. It is hard to imagine an individual being drawn to the law unless he has a real concern with the rights and duties of individuals; the philosophy and practice of political, social, and economic organization; the regulation of behavior; the characteristics of private and public ownership of property; and the inter-relationships of groups and individuals. With such interests as these, the lawyer is drawn by the compulsions of his own curiosity and sense of duty to discuss the practical facts of community life. He is drawn by his own nature into conversations, informal discussions, committee assignments, and public speaking. He can hardly help dealing with the challenges and requirements of the society in which he lives. Skill in speech is a direct avenue to achievement of many of the satisfactions which were anticipated in the selection of law as a profession.

This basic inclination of the lawyer is assisted, stimulated, and directed by public demand. From the days of Hamurabi and Solon, peoples have turned naturally to their lawyers as community and national leaders. It is no accident that among the highest achievements of William the Conqueror is the *Domesday Book*, nor that Buonaparte turned a large share of his constructive energies into formulation of the Napoleonic Code. Society by definition is organized human relations. Some of these organized relationships are educational, some are spiritual, some are military. For these the teacher, the minister, and the professional soldier are all called upon for guidance in their special realms. But a very large proportion of the working elements in human society are dependent upon relationships that must be formulated, defined, and interpreted. This great and diverse body of regulations comprises the law of the land. Lawyers are expected by their fellows to understand, to explain, and to provide leadership in dealing with an incredible variety of problems. This leadership function of lawyers leads to their selection for an entirely disproportionate number

of political offices, ranging all the way from justice of the peace to President of the United States. The way in which this leadership is exercised lies primarily in the skillful uses of speech.

SPEECH FOR SELF-DEFENSE

The lawyer's need for ability as a speaker, however, does not rest wholly upon complimentary foundations. As a direct result both of the complexity of the law and of its penetrating influence into practically every phase of individual and community life, the great mass of the people balance their admiration for lawyers with a degree of suspicion and distrust of them. Back in 1698 the Colony of Connecticut carried on its statute books a law which classed lawyers with drunkards and keepers of disorderly houses. "As slick as a Philadelphia lawyer" and "So complicated even a lawyer couldn't understand it" are common phrases which reveal a modicum of this old colonial attitude. Probably few if any lawyers have escaped being told of the rural gentleman who read on a tombstone the inscription, "Here lies a lawyer and an honest man," and thereupon exclaimed in honest bewilderment, "Why did they have to bury them both in one grave?"

By many a layman the complicated legal verbiage in a deed of property, in an income tax law, or in a simple bill of sale is suspiciously regarded as evidence that the lawyers are either trying to cheat the public by sponsoring a special "language of the law," which a shrewd attorney can interpret to the advantage of himself or his client; or, at the very least, that this special terminology is devised by lawyer-legislators with the deliberate intention of requiring the professional services of expensive lawyers for its interpretation. In view of such attitudes, the lawyer has a real need for the ability to speak interestingly and effectively to clarify the general principles of law and to establish himself in the public view as an individual to be fully trusted and respected, even though his professional activities may not always be understood.

Most lawyers will probably have found reason in their own experience to agree with the conclusion of Chauncey Depew, who was notably successful as a lawyer, as a politician, as a railway administrator, and as a public speaker, and who summed up his three-quarters of a century of experience in this piece of advice: "There is no other accomplishment which any man can have that will so quickly make him a career and secure recognition as the ability to speak acceptably."

YOUR OWN NEED FOR SPEECH

You, as a lawyer, are the best able to make a direct application to yourself of the foregoing discussion of the various uses of speech for members of the legal profession. If you are engaged actively in law court work, dealing with many clients, and arguing numerous cases before a jury or judge, you may feel an especial need for all possible skill in office conferences, in organizing arguments and evidence, and in preparing and delivering effective briefs or pleas. On the other hand, you may discount this particular type of speech need if you are primarily a research worker in a large law firm, with few or no occasions for dealing directly either with clients or with juries. Or, as a specialist in deeds, in income tax problems, or in some similar type of paper work, you may have comparatively little direct professional use of speech.

What often happens, of course, is that a limitation of speaking ability may be a (or *the*) principal reason why a particular lawyer finds himself confined to the preparation of briefs, or to research in gathering evidence. On the other hand, many an eminently successful law court attorney owes his success primarily to his speaking ability and depends substantially upon subordinates and associates for the basic preparation of his cases.

You will know, too, whether your own interests do predispose you to take an active role in community affairs, in club and church work, and in politics. The arduous ordeal of running for public office or of accepting numerous invitations to speak to public gatherings may have little appeal for you. Perhaps you prefer the more gradual mode of establishing your legal proficiency and practise by word of mouth reports regarding the cases which you handle. Or, it may be that sheer unfamiliarity with the processes of public speaking have induced you to depend upon the latter method; whereas, if you did actually possess skill in speech you would be pleased to utilize it. In any event, you have perhaps noticed that election to public office or to positions of note in local clubs does not necessarily depend upon superiority in any respect except one—namely, superior skill as a speaker.

Almost certainly you have experienced the fact that when civic programs are undertaken, such as Red Cross and Community Chest drives, or Chamber of Commerce promotional campaigns, there is a natural inclination to include lawyers among the promoters. Churches, School Districts,

banks, and many lodges like to have one or more lawyers among their directors. Similarly, when great national or international crises arise to perplex and disturb the community, the lawyers are certain to be among those most frequently asked to express opinion and to suggest courses of action for dealing with them.

"You're a lawyer—what do you think about it?" seems to many people a natural question to ask, whether the problem be a strike, an increase in unemployment, the threat of war, or an expose of political corruption. You may feel a strong inclination to insist that you know no more about the question than the grocer, dentist, or service station operator. But by the very fact of being a member of the legal profession, a degree of community leadership is inevitably thrust upon you. To reject this leadership is to limit severely the role that, as a lawyer, you are normally expected to play. And to accept this leadership means that more and more you are called upon to participate in discussions and to make speeches before a wide variety of groups.

A STANDARD OF GOOD SPEECH

The type of speech skill which is required of you, as a lawyer, is different in some respects from that required by members of other professions. Ministers are expected to speak of spiritual values with confidence and authority. Teachers need special skill in drawing out their students and in stimulating and directing purposeful group discussion. Salesmen succeed through their ability to concentrate the attention of their prospects upon the particular benefits derived from their own line of products. Lawyers are far more likely to be called upon to discuss a wide variety of subjects under circumstances in which the facts and ideas set forth are of more concern than the specific art or artifices of speech.

When you speak as a lawyer it may often be true that you care far less about being considered a good speaker than you do about being considered fair minded, factual, dependable in judgment, and unselfishly devoted to the community's welfare. In other words, you want to be considered a good man in general, rather than a good speaker in particular. You will want to avoid arousing any feeling that you can make any cause you advocate sound reasonable and attractive, regardless of the facts. Even this type of reputation is rumored to have a certain value in the practice of criminal law! But in your community speaking it is far better to create the im-

pression that you may be only reasonably effective in the arts of speech, but that you are so careful and judicious in your examination of the facts that you can usually be depended on to be right. It should be added, however, that it is precisely the creation of this latter impression which is the best fruit of truly effective speech.

A lawyer who misses the point of what his speech skill should actually accomplish is likely to misdirect his efforts while trying to improve his speaking ability. If he makes the mistake of thinking that frequent and prolonged applause is the chief test of his stature as a speaker, he may unconsciously direct his speaking primarily to telling his audience what they most wish to hear. Speaking to isolationists, he may warn against the pitfalls of foreign entanglements; when he addresses an audience of Federal Unionists, on the other hand, he may tend to stress the value of international coordination. Similarly, he may direct his speaking efforts primarily to light and humorous entertainment, to mimicry, or to delivering bombastic orations for Memorial Day or Commencement exercises. It is entirely possible to acquire a reputation as "a man who may al-

ways be depended upon to give a good speech," and at the same time come to be regarded as a man who can scarcely be depended upon for soundness or conviction in his views. To fall into this classification is, of course, to handicap rather than to assist the lawyer in his professional development.

The ideal to be pursued is to be able to speak with conviction and effectiveness in expressing opinions which are soundly formed and solidly supported. With this goal always in mind, it is both feasible and desirable to develop a range of speech skills broad enough to include humor and impressiveness, as well as facts and logic. As a general guide to make sure that the speech development is always in the right direction you have only to keep in mind the sound axiom that you are not trying to be a public entertainer but are attempting to exercise a healthy influence in the community along the lines of your own deeply held convictions. Then, instead of being classed as "one who will always give a good speech," you will be regarded as "one who is always worth hearing and one whose views we want to know before making up our minds."



WHO CAN AFFORD NOT TO SPEAK WELL?

"The spoken and heard word is the primary form for language, and of far greater importance than the secondary form used for writing (printing) and reading. . . . Even in our modern newspaper-ridden communities, the vast majority of us speak infinitely more than we write. At any rate we shall never be able to understand what language is and how it develops if we do not continually take into consideration first and foremost the activity of speaking and hearing, and if we forget for a moment that writing is only a substitute for speaking. A written word is mummified until someone imparts life to it by transposing it mentally into the corresponding spoken word."

— Otto Jespersen, *The Philosophy of Grammar*

THE LAWYER

in Conference with His Client

By SIDNEY APFELBAUM

A graduate of the University of Pennsylvania Law School, Mr. Apfelbaum is a practicing attorney in Sunbury, Pennsylvania

At a recent passing of a distinguished member of the county bar, an association of which I am a member, the eulogy pronounced by his fellow-lawyers stressed the fact that industry and intelligence were the departed one's chief attributes. A lawyer who is looked upon by other members of his profession as a "good lawyer" has indeed attained success in his work, for they are his greatest critics.

There is, however, another test of the quality of a lawyer in general practice. He has an audience which he must confront, deal with, and, unfortunately in many instances, satisfy. This audience is comprised of the myriad groups of clients who pass before the lawyer's conference desk and to whom the lawyer, like the public speaker, must address himself. To further complicate the task, it is from this "audience" that the lawyer engaged in general practice derives his livelihood.

The approach to a client whose mind is beset with a problem of utmost importance to him is not a simple thing. In my experience, and the longer I live in the legal profession, I am daily more convinced that straight-forward thinking and dealing, and honorable consistency of principle go farther to smooth the path of the lawyer in the attorney-client relationship. A solicitor must never forget that he is his clients' adviser and that the very act of asking advice implies an acknowledged superiority of information or of judgment in the party consulted.

The practicing lawyer in addressing his client in conference is compelled to analyze his client just as a speaker of talent analyzes his audience. Some clients confer with lawyers merely to be consoled rather than assisted. Other clients are

timid and fearful of stepping across the lawyer's threshold, for many reasons other than the fact that a fee might be submitted for services rendered. Still others are members of a well-known group who are just downright litigious. These are the fringe groups bordering upon the vast segment of clients who come to consult because of a wholesome need for legal assistance.

The practicing lawyer in his preliminary conference must, therefore, attempt the collection of information concerning the makeup of his client without appearing to seek it officiously. Close, but silent, observation of the manner of a new client is a chore which must be undertaken. The lawyer thereby becomes, in many instances not a speaker but rather a ready listener. There are instances where the loquacity and legal brilliance of the lawyer become secondary to the ability to concentrate and give profound attention to the words of the client.

There is no standard formula to be employed by an attorney in conference with his client. As in other matters, only experience can be the teacher, and with experience the lawyer develops his own manner of addressing clients forensically and their problems legally. It is encouraging for a lawyer to realize that the client will ordinarily be a most attentive audience, earnestly awaiting the words of advice and gratefully receiving the offered assistance of the lawyer. With such an audience, the lawyer need not be a silver-tongued orator in the presentation of his views concerning the client's problem, but it is important that the lawyer be able to analyze facts and then in an orderly and concise manner explain in simple and understandable language exactly what the client is seeking.

There is today in the civil practice of law, both in the office and in the courtroom, very little use for the colorful lawyer who was capable by tirade and overpowering gestures of elucidating his position in a controversial legal matter. That particular lawyer lives only in memory and anecdote today. However, just as in the course of a debate, one must attempt to dominate and express to a certain extent one's own personality, it is absolutely essential that a lawyer sitting at a conference table across from his client be far more than a shrinking introvert.

Office conferences with a client are comparable to the question and answer style of debating. Through the use of the spoken word the exploration into the client's mind is conducted. The direction of the conference depends upon clear thinking, concise method of presentation, and constant probing by the legal practitioner who by the very nature of his training and position, must, before the end of the conference, become the dominant voice in the conference. The lawyer serves as a monitor of the consultation until that point in the conference is reached.

On rare occasion when interviewing his own client, the lawyer is compelled to resort to some of the techniques of cross-examination in order to be certain that the word of the client is truthful. The art of cross-examination is a specialty which becomes thoroughly developed only after years of training. It must also be remembered that in order for a lawyer effectively to understand the client's case, he must pitch his questions on a truthful basis. This is not only effective advocacy,

but it is the duty of the lawyer as an officer of the court.

Effective counseling involves not only a knowledge of the principles of the law, which can be found in the books on the lawyer's shelf, but also a knowledge of how those principles of law operate upon the problem posed by the client to the lawyer. The counselor must have an understanding of human nature and of modern society. He must, in the course of a conference with his client, evaluate the position of his client and express in clear language a restatement of the questions posed by the client and a solution or solutions to the dilemma. In the instance where a client will have his cause tried in a courtroom, the practicing lawyer must go one step further and become a skilled advocate with one eye to the jury and the other eye on the record which may be the basis for an appeal to a higher judicial tribunal.

It has been said that unless a lawyer has had experience as an advocate, it is difficult to see how he can be a thoroughly confident counsellor, for he will not be able to evaluate his client's cause in terms of the realities of the courtroom. It is in the courtroom that the law is applied to concrete facts and it is the advocates, who with the judges, in the last analysis, set the course of the law.

The heart of the matter is that a practicing attorney, especially across the conference table from his client, must be able to think and express his thoughts. These, along with industry, are the attributes of the successful practicing attorney.



HOW ABOUT IT?

If you speak well, as a public speaker, in conversation and conference, and in group discussion, what kind of job do you want? For what kinds of work are you especially fitted?

If you are planning to hire someone (anyone, for any kind of work whatsoever) don't you want some assurance that he can speak effectively? Wouldn't you rather have a good speaker as a new employee, even if he has to be taught job-skills, than a skilled technician who can't communicate? Of course we all know the answers!

WINSTON CHURCHILL'S

Proposal for a United Europe

By KENYON WHITE WARNER, JR.

The Director of the College Union, Oswego College, reminds us of the background issues as England takes the momentous step of pledging to maintain permanent forces on the continent.

Today as we become more and more aware of the possibilities of another disastrous war, a growing demand is voiced in the United States and Britain for the unification, or integration, of the Western European Nations to which we have been giving economic and military aid under the ECA and NATO. This study will deal with Winston Churchill's plan of reconstruction, first offered in 1943, which was basically concerned with forming a United States of Europe.

The authors of world peace proposals fall into two categories, those who advocate global schemes and the two schools of federalists which content themselves with the organization of a single region.

The ideological unionists ask for a federal union of the democratic peoples of the world and hope that in due course other nations will recognize the sagacity of such government, become democracies themselves, and thus be welcomed into the union.

The European unionists regard Europe as the world's storm center and give special attention to peace problems in this area. Among this group, however, are those who go a step farther and advocate regional arrangements on a sub-continental scale. The emphasis, of course, is still placed on Europe. Churchill's proposal falls into this category.

WHY A UNITED EUROPE?

Since the end of the second world war America and England have been very much concerned with the Soviet Union and with Western Europe. The Soviet Union has been exceedingly vigorous and Western Europe has been exactly the opposite. There is a definite relationship between the two problems. Britain and America desire a more active Western Europe because of the ex-

istence of a disconcertingly ambitious and energetic Russia. Actually, the Soviet Union constitutes the only potential threat to the security of Western Europe. It is true that until recently Russians have had little inclination toward the old fashioned kind of armed aggression. Instead of setting armies in motion across frontiers, Communism has expanded by extending its influence among peoples within a country. This strategy has met with little success where people live comfortably and in reasonable equality. In countries where the reverse is true Communism has a large following.

It follows that anything that reduces the number of hungry, ill-clad or otherwise dissatisfied people in Western Europe, will actually help to blunt this tool of the Soviet Union. Of course the reverse is also true. Anything that would lower the standard of Western European living would create dissatisfaction, insecurity and a feeling of oppression and this in turn would stimulate and aid the spread of Communism. There is one main conclusion to be drawn from this reasoning. If Western Europe's economic problems are not solved, and especially should they take a turn for the worse, the possibilities for Communistic expansion would be greatly enhanced.

This is not only true because it takes economic strength to produce the arms and equipment for defense but even more important is the fact that, in modern times at least, only people who are reasonably well off and free from a sense of oppression and who are satisfied with their government show much enthusiasm for fighting. Naturally, there are exceptions, but recent history is full of instances of armies disintegrating when the men in them do not feel any great stake in

the outcome. As Philip Mosely warned in 1948:

The strengthening of Western Europe through closer economic and security arrangements will enable it to become a third great power, side by side with the Soviet Union and the United States. Whether a consolidated Western Europe becomes a cushion between Russia and the United States or an outpost of American power, the result is equally opposed by Soviet leaders. For them as for the Cominform, recovery of Western Europe means a relative weakening of the Soviet position in the world.

Basically then, this is the problem. A Western Europe without unity shows no promise of being economically strong. If this is the case, it will be unable to defend itself against any type of aggression should the need arise. And there is reasonable possibility that if it is strong economically, politically, and militarily, the need to defend it may not arise.

U. S. AND BRITISH INTEREST

The foregoing has been an attempt to show the desirability of unionization from the European standpoint. The reality of the Soviet menace is beyond doubt and there is little disagreement about the Soviet threat to Europe. There the combined threat of the Soviet idea and the Soviet power have endangered the independence of nations whose loss would jeopardize the United States and Britain.

Howard S. Ellis, in his book *The Economics of Freedom* has this to say concerning the reason for United States interest:

The United States recognizes an "intrinsic" value in the restoration of more livable conditions in Europe, an interest apart from the conflicts of power and politics and ideologies. And so even now, in the midst of the cold war, it is worthwhile to remind ourselves that, even were there no Russians in the world, Americans have the greatest possible stake in a prosperous and peaceful Europe. For the United States cannot be peaceful in a world of death, decay, famine and destruction.

EUROPE PREVIOUSLY UNITED

Actually the problem of European people is not so much to unite as it is to reunite after having fallen apart into national fragments. Europe was united under the Roman Empire; in the Middle Ages when the continent was knit together by a common birth, by the widespread use of Latin,

and by political power of the Catholic Church; and in the days of the Holy Roman Empire. Even after nation states had emerged, a common heritage of culture during the Renaissance and a common fund of ideas in the period of the Enlightenment made Europe far more "one world" than it is today.

But nationalism fanned by the democratic ideas of liberty and equality of the French Revolution crossed the continent like wildfire in the nineteenth century. National sentiment gave rise to the demand for national self-determinism in the twentieth century. The European community—once divided into a few great Empires, French, German, Austro-Hungarian, Russian — was split into smaller and smaller fragments. Some of the nations which succeeded in achieving independence did not number more than two million people and, in their weakness, became easy prey to the pressures of first Nazi Germany and then Communist Russia.

The experience which reflects in Churchill's proposal, aimed at peace through a united Europe, has a basis in the two major attempts of Europe at organized effort to preserve peace. The first was at the Congress of Vienna in 1814, which ended that World War. The second was at Versailles in 1919, which ended another World War.

From Vienna sprang the Holy Alliance which was quickly transformed into the Quadruple Alliance by which Great Britain, Austria, Prussia, and Russia agreed to work together to preserve and enforce peace. This functioned somewhat effectively for a few years but finally split and there emerged the "Concert of Europe". This Concert of Europe was not a defined regular meeting organization of definite power but a practice by which the leading powers would get together in emergencies. This helped during many crises but finally broke down against the factors which created the World War in 1914. "The Concert had its weaknesses but it did give the world one of the longest periods of freedom from global war it has ever experienced — nearly one hundred years," wrote Herbert Hoover and Hugh Gibson in 1943.

The second attempt was the much more "precise and definite organization" of the League of Nations. The experiences of the League showed that it operated under a decided handicap. There were at least thirty nations from outside Europe dealing with troublesome European questions or policies.

In the assembly of the League, each of these nations, no matter how unfamiliar with European problems had an equal vote with the nations of Europe. This world organization was only too often a drag on the settlement of strictly European problems, which made up the vast bulk of League activity.

Today Europe cannot be regarded as a single community. Not only is it broken up by boundaries and tariffs, it no longer even shares a common heritage of tradition. The continent now seems to consist of two Europes. The Europe of the west was molded by "the influence of Roman law, by the Catholic Church, by the Revolution and the Renaissance, by the French Revolution and the social movement of the nineteenth century." The other Europe is the Europe of the East. This area was not too greatly affected by the influence that determined western civilization and it "still bears the imprint of Byzantine Autocracy of church and state and of repeated invasions from Asia."

CHURCHILL'S POSITION

As long ago as 1943, when military experts were predicting that war in Europe might draw to a close, in favor of the allies, in the not-too-distant future, Winston Churchill, on April 15, made a plea for a Council of Europe and a Council of Asia as part of his plan for world peace.

One can imagine that under a world institution embodying or representing the United Nations, and some day all nations, there should come into being a Council of Europe and a Council of Asia. As, according to the forecast I am outlining, the war against Japan will still be raging, it is upon the creation of the Council of Europe that the first practical task will be centered. Now this is a stupendous business. In Europe lie most of the causes which have led to these two world wars. In Europe dwell the historic parent races from whom our Western civilization has been so largely derived. I believe myself to be what is called a good European, and deem it a noble task to revive the fertile genius and restore the true greatness of Europe.

Churchill stated that the Council of Europe (for that was his main concern) will one day "embrace all of Europe". He was desirous of having the primary responsibility for maintaining peace vested in regional councils. He said that

they should inaugurate the machinery for settling controversy and even the armed forces to prevent aggression.

Churchill insisted at that time upon the necessity for leadership and unity of Britain, Russia and the United States.

All this will I believe be found to harmonize with the high permanent interests of Britain, the United States and Russia. It certainly cannot be accomplished without their cordial and concerted agreement and participation. Thus and thus only will the glory of Europe rise again.

It was on September 19, 1946, that Churchill urged a partnership between France and Germany as the first step in creating a United States of Europe, whose "friends and sponsors" would include both Russia and the United States.

Frankly acknowledging that such a proposal "will astonish you" he asked for an "end to retribution" in dealing with beaten Germany.

He said the world dwelt "strangely and precariously under the shield, I will even say the protection, of the atomic bomb," because the bomb was then in the sole possession of the United States but he foresaw the disintegration of civilization and possibly of the globe itself, if the bomb became a weapon for warring nations.

Warning that "time may be short," Churchill said it was imperative that the creation of a United States of Europe within the framework of the United Nations begin at once, with the first "practical step" the formation of a "Council of Europe" with France and Germany taking the lead in such an effort. The importance he attributed to Soviet approval of such a move was indicated in this statement:

"Great Britain, the British Commonwealth of Nations, mighty America and, I trust, Soviet Russia—and then indeed all would be well—must be the friends and sponsors of the new Europe. Let Europe arise."

He was desirous of forming a United States of Europe even if some of the states did not join immediately. "If at first all states of Europe are not willing or able to join the union, we must nevertheless proceed to assemble and combine those who will and can."

This speech caused much debate throughout Britain and probably elsewhere as to whether Churchill had put forward an apparently unattainable ideal for its salutary effect or whether he was "dedicating himself to the same sort of

struggle that Woodrow Wilson fought for as his ideal as a League of Nations."

On October 4, 1946, he spoke to an audience in Blackpool, England, pledging himself to devote his remaining years to championing the ideal of the United States of Europe. He spoke briefly on the perils, hazards and toil that the English people went through to gain the victory. "Now we have won," he said, "and it may well be that there are moments when we feel that victory, the glittering goddess, is less pleasing when possessed." He added, however:

But there is no reason why victory should translate itself into dust and ashes. The United States has definitely declared herself as abandoning the policy of isolation and as watching vigilantly and sharing effectively in guarding the peace of the world. . . .

Why should we leave all the burden to the United States? Why should not we also have a United States of Europe? . . . Why should this continent be a torn and mangled victim, dependent upon other continents less blessed?

In January of 1947 Churchill initiated the United European Committee. The aim of this committee was to win public support in England and on the Continent, for unity among all European Nations. On May 14 of the same year he launched the first public campaign of the committee by addressing in London "a rally of 6,000 enthusiastic representatives of various schools of political opinion."

In this speech he stressed the fact that Britain and France should take the initiative in saving Germany from "economic suffocation" that could lead only to thoughts of "revolt and revenge". Because the United Europe Movement had been denounced, by the Russian press and radio, as being a move toward war against the Soviet Union, Churchill stated that the whole purpose of the drive was to give decisive guarantees against aggression.

In speaking of Britain's role he said, "If Europe United is to be a living force, Britain will have to play her full part as a member of the European family".

On May 7, 1948, the first Congress of Europe was called by a Joint International Committee of the Movements for European Unity, comprising Churchill's United Europe movement, Paul Van Zeeland's Independent League for European Cooperation, the French Council for United Europe,

the European Parliamentary Union, and the Union of European Federalists. Churchill, who made the opening speech at this Congress, appealed to the European peoples to forget the hatred of the past as the only means of saving themselves from the "perils which draw near".

He had a special welcome for the German delegation and remarked that "some of the most eminent and powerful Frenchmen" agreed with him that it was the "proved mission of the victor nations to take the Germans by the hand and lead them back to the European family."

He welcomed the association of sixteen governments in the European Recovery Program and then added:

But our aim is not confined to Western Europe. We seek nothing less than all Europe. . . . We aim at the eventual participation of all peoples throughout the continent whose society and way of life are in accord. . . . with a charter of human rights and with the sincere expression of a free democracy.

With regard to the United States Churchill said, "I was anxious at first lest the United States of America should view with hostility the idea of a United States of Europe," then he added, "I rejoice that the great Republic in its era of world leadership has risen far above such moods. Far from resenting the creation of a United Europe the American people ardently sustain the resurrection of what was called the old world."

PUBLIC OPINION

Churchill undertook a tremendous task when he began appealing to the peoples of Europe to unite. There was the problem of appeasing the feeling of nationalism in the Western European nations involved. There was Russia who would claim such a move was a step toward war. There was the problem of keeping American aid rolling into these Western European countries. And there was the problem of Britain herself. Would she become a part of it or not? In each case the appeal to national stereotyped ideas had to be met without "treading on the toes" of another nation. It is to clarify some of these considerations that this section on public opinion is included.

Americans wonder why Europeans don't follow our example and form "a more perfect union, free of tariff barriers, currency restriction and bars to immigration."

The comparison between the United States and Europe, however, is misleading. When the thirteen original colonies revolted against Britain, they

had the advantage of settling in an unchartered continent, free of all vested interests except those of the American Indian. They formed a political union where none had stood previously. By contrast, the national economies of Western Europe have been in the process of development for centuries.

Important, too, in our concern for United Europe is American feeling toward Russia. As Almond Gabriel wrote in *The American People and Foreign Policy*:

During the war and in the period immediately following its termination there was a widely shared belief among Americans and among American policy-makers that the Russian problem could be readily solved by good will and the "man-to-man" approach. The

continued thwarting of American overtures and concessions to the Russians now seems to have produced an attitude of hopeless pessimism.

The possibility of a war with Russia is closely associated with our thinking of a United Europe.

The British prefer not to become too involved in the affairs of Europe, which have so often resulted in war. There is a strong desire to maintain their sovereignty. They have been anxious to diminish their dependence on United States' aid and naturally they seek to expand their trade in Europe. The English would like to see a United Europe but they are not willing to sacrifice their own sovereignty to become a member. This is where the problem now rests. It will be a difficult one to solve.



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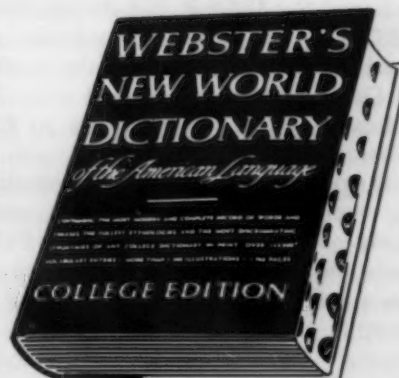
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PUBLIC OPINION

on the Eve of World War

By GORDON BRIGHAM

A challenging factual survey of public opinion as measured by polls in the years immediately preceding Germany's attack on Poland, by a Captain in the USAF.

In these days of cold war tension, public officials are prone to make frequent references to the strength of public opinion as a force limiting their freedom to devise adequate foreign policies. In France, public opinion is interpreted as being so fearful of re-arming Germany that it prefers to risk Soviet aggression rather than accept membership in EDC. In England public opinion is alleged to be driving the Government toward an increasingly neutralistic position. In the United States public opinion is presumed by the politicians to favor "peace, progress, and prosperity" rather than more stringent efforts to block further Communist advances. As a background for interpreting the wisdom of the public in forecasting international events, the following illuminating analysis of public opinion on the eve of World War II is presented. (EDITOR'S NOTE).

In March, 1935 Adolf Hitler was officially condemned as a world menace by the national Council of Jewish Women and in July of that year *Catholic News* likened his efforts to suppress the Church to those of Bismark. In January, 1936, Soviet Minister Molotoff cited Hitler's book, *Mein Kampf*, as showing Germany's expansionist aims at the expense of the U.S.S.R. Yet during this same period (1935-36) the Nazi propaganda ministry was working diligently to show the purity and justice of *Der Fuehrer's* desires and aims. He was being compared in this propaganda to Christ, George Washington and Joan of Arc.

Despite this attempted whitewashing, however, the world remained somewhat sceptical of his intentions. The French press (in February, 1936) questioned his offer of friendship with France. On April 14, 1936, his effigy was hanged at a meeting of the American League Against War

and Fascism and in December of the same year he was burned in effigy in a City College of New York student demonstration.

In December, 1935, *Fortune* magazine conducted a survey of some 3,000 individuals distributed as to age, sex, geographical section, size of city and economic level. The editors ask (in the January, 1936 issue): "Are the various anti-war organizations—of which there are reported to be some 200 in New York City alone—succeeding in making us a truly pacifist nation? There are evidences on both sides—sporadic conscientious objections to taking the oath of allegiance, saluting the flag, or goose-stepping in the R.O.T.C.'s of land-grant colleges, as against the fact that both political parties invariably stress the promise of adequate national defense and that the administration is providing for just that to the tune of \$792,500,000 of the taxpayers' money, budgeted for the fiscal year 1936."

The December, 1935, poll revealed that 80.3% of those interviewed felt that they would be willing to fight or to have a member of their family fight in case we were attacked on our own territory; yet their overwhelming indifference to the Monroe Doctrine is indicated by the fact that only 17.4% felt they would be willing to fight in the event that a foreign power tried to seize land in Central or South America.

At this time the isolationist sentiment was very strong in this country. Only 29.8% of those polled felt that the U.S. should join the League of Nations if war in Europe should be averted through the action of the League of Nations. Apparently at this time (January, 1936) the people of this country viewed Mussolini as a greater threat to world peace than was Hitler, and this despite the

occupation of Austria. Nowhere in the *Fortune* surveys (in 1935-36) was this writer able to find any reference to American public opinion concerning the occupation of Austria. Indeed the editors state that "...the dangers of being embroiled in a war abroad, which have been described on and off the front pages ever since Great Britain sent her fleet to the Mediterranean, have impressed upon the public consciousness the comforts of complete isolation from crises that may spring from an unheard-of-corner of Africa."

Isolationist feeling was strong in the United States in 1937. Germany had occupied Austria (1935) and the Rhineland (1936) and had withdrawn from the League of Nations (1935). Dr. Elton Atwater in an article, "Organizing American Public Opinion for Peace" in the *Public Opinion Quarterly*, reveals that "fifty patriotic organizations (national) with active peace committees, forty-three organizations whose activities increase international understanding and countless local patriotic and peace committees are endeavoring in one way or another to influence American opinion in behalf of peace."

These may be divided into five general groups of thought which are emphasized as the most effective methods of preserving peace. One group feels that peace can best be secured through military and naval preparedness on the part of the U. S. Prominent in this group one finds the American Legion, Veterans of Foreign Wars, Daughters of the American Revolution and the Navy League of the United States.

The other four general groups of thought are: 1) Emphasizing the strengthening of the League of Nations to prevent war through organized collective action and sanctions. The League of Nations Association would be representative of this group. 2) Adopting a strict program of neutrality, with the refusal to let the United States become a base of war supplies. Members of this group feel that war cannot be prevented by sanctions but only by concessions and peaceful changes. The National Council for the Prevention of War would be representative of this group. 3) Emphasizing absolute pacifism and the refusal to participate in any war. The War Resisters League is representative of this group. 4) Emphasizing replacing the capitalist system with a socialist system of production for use instead of for profit. The League for Industrial Democracy is representative of this latter group.

Dr. Atwater reveals that the National Peace

Conference, meeting in February, 1937, represented sixteen of the most active national peace organizations and twenty-one national organization of books, magazines, etc. on all phases of in- used by these organizations in arousing American public opinion include publication and distribution of books, magazines, etc. on all phases of international relations and peace; promotion of study groups and institutes; films, newspaper publicity, etc. For example, the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace distributes many publications free of charge to 836 libraries and to International Relations Clubs in colleges. The National Council for the Prevention of War has a special division which devotes its full time to encouraging peace action among labor organizations. *World Peaceways* prepared full-page advertisements, graphically portraying the consequences of war and in 1935 (the year of such aggressive acts as the occupation of Austria and the conquest of Ethiopia) sixty-four such advertisements appeared in publications with a total circulation of 15,941,332.

Another pacifist method was legislative lobbying. The National Council for Prevention of War and The Women's International League for Peace and Freedom had been active in this field for several years at the time of Dr. Atwater's report. In August, 1935, for example, the efforts of the National Council for Prevention of War were conspicuous in helping to secure passage of a temporary arms embargo act by Congress.

A third anti-war move consisted of general campaigns for peace. In February, 1937 the War Resisters League, which concentrates on the enrollment of individuals who have determined to refuse to support all war, had 12,813 active members. From September, 1935, through December, 1936 the Womens' International League for Peace and Freedom conducted a campaign designed to get citizens in every country to demand that their governments cease all increases in armaments and use existing machinery for peaceful settlement of disputes. By December, 1936, one and one-half million signatures from countries in the western hemisphere had been obtained. In 1936 and early 1937 the Emergency Peace Campaign sponsored a series of mass meetings in over 500 cities to arouse public support for "strong neutrality legislation."

American Institute of Public Opinion surveys were conducted by more than 600 field reporters situated in all parts of the country. On questions

of national importance the number of voters interviewed, George Gallup and Clark Robinson reported, "runs from 3,000 to 50,000, depending on the problems involved. Whatever the size of the sample, the cross-section is so constructed that residents of Montana, for example, have the same proportional representation in the sample as in the nation as a whole; income groups in the sample are proportional to income groups in the body of the nation; and so on through various classifications of special interests or characteristics. Every institute sample is tested for its proportional accuracy with respect to six factors: 1) representation by states, 2) men and women, 3) urban-rural distribution, 4) age, 5) size of income and 6) political partisanship."

In December, 1935, 72% of the individuals polled felt that we should build a larger navy. In January, 1938, 74% of those polled answered this same question in the affirmative and in March, 1938, 73% of those polled felt that a larger navy would be more likely to keep us out of war than it would to get us into war.

In June, 1937, 77% of those individuals polled agreed that one or more nations were responsible for the present armament race. Only 38% of those polled felt that Germany was the responsible nation. In June, 1937, 66% of those persons who were polled favored a world disarmament conference.

The strength of isolationism in the face of growing threats of full-scale war is powerfully shown by the results of the following American surveys: In January, 1937, 62% felt that the United States could stay out of another European war and a poll conducted in April of that year revealed that 70% of those polled felt that the participation of the U. S. in the World War was a mistake. A slightly earlier poll (November, 1936) indicated that 95% of those interviewed felt that the United States should not participate in another World War; yet a poll conducted in August of 1937 revealed that 73% of those polled felt that another World War would occur and 30% agreed that Germany would be responsible for starting it. It is interesting to note that another poll conducted that same month indicated that 77% of those citizens interviewed felt that Germany was chiefly guilty of causing the World War.

Since Adolf Hitler's chief target of attack—and, theoretically, the motivating factor for most if not all of his aggressive action from 1935 to September 1, 1939—was the Treaty of Versailles, the re-

sults of the following poll are interesting: To the question (presented in August, 1937) 'Do you think the peace treaty after the war was too easy or too severe on Germany?' 41% of those polled answered that it was too easy, 30% that it was too severe and 28% felt that it was about right. Remembering that in November, 1936 95% of those polled had responded that America should not take part in another World War, it is interesting to note that in April, 1938, 54% of those contacted stated that it was their belief that the United States would not have to fight Germany again in their lifetimes.

From October, 1937 to March, 1938 the American Institute of Public Opinion conducted a series of public opinion polls in Great Britain. A poll conducted in October, 1937 revealed that 83% of the British subjects polled felt that if another major European war broke out, Great Britain would be drawn into it; yet a *poll of British men which was conducted two months later indicated that 62% would not volunteer to serve in the armed forces in such a war.* Apparently the British people felt that, despite increased tension, there was no immediate danger of war, since 92% of those polled had not taken any precautions against air raids. It is also interesting to note that empire-minded Britons were not in favor (76% in November, 1937) of returning any of her former colonies to Germany.

In the months which followed the Munich agreement (1938) the American Institute of Public Opinion polled a number of Americans in order to obtain a fairly clear picture of the American attitudes toward Germany. In November, 1938, 92% of those polled said that they didn't believe Hitler when he said that he had no more territorial ambitions in Europe and just a month earlier, 60% of those interviewed stated that they believed that the Munich agreement would result in a greater possibility of war rather than in peace for a number of years. It is interesting to note that, as stated earlier in this report, in August, 1937, 30% of those polled felt that Germany would be responsible for starting another major European war; whereas in January, 1939, when a large number of American citizens were asked that same question, 62% felt that Germany would be responsible and an additional 20% felt that Germany and Italy would be jointly responsible. It is quite apparent that Hitler's demanding speeches and steadily increasing rearmament program, together with the invasion of Czechoslovakia, had

at last awakened a number of additional people to a realization of Hitler's true aims.

It is also interesting to observe that an increasing number of Americans were becoming more conscious of the fact that this country would eventually become involved in any full-scale European conflict. Five times between January, 1937 and August, 1939 a number of Americans were asked this question, "If there is a war, do you think the United States will be drawn into it?" In January, 1937, 38% felt that this country would be involved; in July, 1938, 54% answered in the affirmative; in January, 1939 57%, of those contacted stated that it was their belief that we would become involved, and in April, 1939, this figure had been increased by one percent. In August, 1939 (less than one month before the invasion of Poland touched off World War II) the percentage of those answering in the affirmative had jumped to 76%.

In February, 1939, 62% of those polled felt that if Germany and Italy defeated England and France in a war, they would then start a war against the United States. It must, however, be reported that despite this apparent cognizance of Hitlerian aggressive aspirations, *only 23% of those polled in December, 1939 felt that the Czechoslovakian war crisis was the most interesting news event of 1938.*



FOR THE SPEAKER'S NOTEBOOK

"Truth is by nature self-evident. As soon as you remove the cobwebs of ignorance that surrounds it, it shines clear." —Mahatma Ghandi

• • • • •

True resignation is not becoming weary of the world, rather it is the quiet triumph over the circumstances of life which the will-to-live enjoys in its bitterest need." —Albert Schweitzer

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"Triumph over adversity by learning to cooperate with the inevitable." —An old saying

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"Independence? That's middle class blasphemy. We are all dependent on one another, every soul of us on earth." —George Bernard Shaw

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PUBLIC SPEAKING

in the Philippines

By LILLIAN O'CONNOR

*Fulbright Fellow, Normal College, Legaspi, The Philippines;
Consultant on teaching English to Puerto Ricans, from New York
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WHEN A PRESENT DAY AMERICAN arrives to teach in the Philippines, he finds himself to be part of a great and honored tradition which the people of these islands have lovingly built around their American instructors since the year 1907, when the first boatload of teachers from the States sailed into Manila Bay on board the transport "Thomas." These teachers, nicknamed, "Thomastites," joined efforts with the American soldiers (veterans of the Spanish-American War in this theatre of operations) who "had put down their guns and picked up books in order to teach us to read," as Filipinos say today. Thus the public school system came into existence with English as the language of instruction.

If the new arrival of today happens to be a teacher of speech—or "oral English"—he falls heir also to what is probably the most complicated, and certainly the most fascinating, language problem in the world. English, learned as a second language, is the language of instruction, taught by teachers who, for the most part, learned it as a second language. Most Filipinos ardently desire to continue to be "an English-speaking" nation; yet all children learn one of the more than eighty native dialects at home. Only when they go to school do they learn English; and all instruction is given in English. Even the Philippine National Language — the Tagalog dialect with many additions from other regional dialects—is taught to the children through English, as a foreign language is taught to American children. Deeply imbedded in many of the home dialects or vernaculars are countless words and speech patterns acquired during the nearly four-hundred years of Spanish rule, when students learned Spanish and through Spanish. The whole prob-

lem of English was further complicated by the withdrawal, in the 1930s, of virtually all native English-speaking (American) teachers.

The recent political campaign was a most dramatic way in which to observe the languages-in-action. There was, for example, the rally of the Nationalista Party held in a small town in the Bicol region of southern Luzon, at which the speakers were the subsequently elected President of the republic, Mr. Ramon Magsaysay, his running mate, Mr. Carlos P. Garcia, and Mr. Edmundo Cea, the Senatorial candidate from the Bicol region.

The platform on which the candidates were seated was the town bandstand situated in the center of the old, Spanish-type plaza, brightly lighted, and equipped with a powerful public address system. Local politicians and "big wheels" in shirt sleeves were ranged in a semicircle behind the speakers. The audience, mostly farmers or "Juan de la Cruz" (the Filipino version of John Q. Public) numbering about two thousand men and women, sat on the ground or stood in the soft tropic night. No one but the foreigner paid any attention to the star-studded sky, or the luxuriant banana fronds moving gently in the warm air.

Mr. Garica, the vice-presidential candidate, was the first speaker. In excellent English, he praised his chief, Mr. Magsaysay, telling of accomplishments and fine character traits. Mr. Garcia was earnest, rather serious in mein, used gestures reminiscent of public speaking classes. His vocabulary was scholarly, even erudite; his voice was husky and broke on more than one occasion. Nevertheless, he was forceful, exceedingly fluent in English, and effective. He has more "foreign

accent" than has Mr. Carlos P. Romulo (so familiar to many Americans) yet much less than most well-educated Filipinos. A native of the island of Bicol, his home dialect is Visayan, which has only three vowel sounds, one for a, one for e, and another between o and u. The audience listened to him attentively, cheered at the proper moments, and behaved exactly as any American audience might have done while listening to our candidates.

Mr. Magsaysay spoke next. He began with an announcement in English that brought cheers. He would, he said, speak in both English and Tagalog. One might have expected a discourse in English followed by a translation into Tagalog, or vice versa. Instead, there was a combination of English and Tagalog that rather defies description. First, there were several paragraphs given in fluent Tagalog with no apparent effort. Numbers (ten thousand, fifty million) and dates (1954) were always given in English.

Speaking in Tagalog, Mr. Magsaysay took up the various criticisms levelled at him by his opponent, Mr. Quirino, and the Liberal Party: his inexperience, his youth, his lack of education, his "vulgar" manners. To the charge of "inexperience," he said yes, he was inexperienced in graft and corruption; as to being "young," he answered that he was young enough to have new ideas and to be able to carry them out for the benefit of the people. As to being "uneducated" and "just a mechanic," Mr. Magsaysay retorted that he was a good mechanic, and that a good mechanic was needed to put the government back in first-class condition. In ringing words—English—he promised to do something as a mechanic of good government to make the people happier through a fuller life.

Returning to Tagalog, he said that he had been accused of mixing too much with the people, shaking hands with many of them, something characterized as "vulgar" by his opposition. He considered it, he said, an honor to shake hands with the common people because it was the hands of the common citizen that made the nation. There followed an appeal in English to "stay together in this fight until we win, to go on together, to build the nation strong, to hold onto our ideals and to act together for a better life for all people." The audience broke into cheers which lasted two minutes.

Mr. Magsaysay talked for an hour and twenty minutes. When he stopped it was because of

additional appointments to speak in nearby towns. He made five other talks that night in as many towns, finished up about four o'clock the next morning. In every case the people clamored for more.

Mr. Magsaysay's voice is strong, somewhat metallic in quality. There was no trace of strain or huskiness; he never cleared his throat or touched the glass of water on the stand. His gestures were almost continuous in an up-and-down sawing manner, somewhat awkward and too large (he had changed and improved his gestures by the time inauguration came around.) He leaned far out over the balustrade at frequent intervals as though to be close to his people. As a result, his voice boomed out over the microphone at one moment and then failed to register at all at other times. He frequently mopped his face with a handkerchief. His vocabulary was more colloquial than that of Mr. Garcia, and he spoke much more rapidly than did his running mate.

Again, the audience was most attentive, happily responsive, cheering statements in both English and Tagalog, laughing at the jokes, and yelling vociferously at the emotional appeals. No one booed anything or anybody; throughout the entire evening there was a total absence of booing, such as we have in our American political tradition.

The third and last speaker, Mr. Cea, running for the Senate, was the only one native to the region, and therefore, the only one to speak in the dialect of the region, Bicol. He would, he said, speak in Bicol, because it was "the language of our homes—your home and mine," and the audience applauded and cheered. The Bicol dialect, meagre in vocabulary and ideas, has borrowed many Spanish words, so that there were whole phrases and sentences in what might have been Spanish. There was one quotation in English. Shakespeare's words, "Full of sound and fury, signifying nothing," was used to characterize the regime then in power at Malacan. As with Mr. Magsaysay, all numbers were given by Mr. Cea in English: "almost four million school children," "sixty million dollars in American Aid," "nineteen hundred and forty-nine."

Mr. Cea belongs to a Spanish-speaking Filipino family; and his English has the marks of a Spanish accent, especially on the sounds of *t*, *d*, *th*, and *r* as in *childrrren*, "thirrrty," and *interrvention*. His voice lacks variety but showed no strain or huskiness. Like Mr. Garcia, he praised

Mr. Magsaysay, quoting the record and giving facts and figures to substantiate the statements. He urged the audience to vote for him (Cea) as Senator so that the Bicol region might have youth and vigorous representation to back Mr. Magsaysay. The audience listened without being so attentively quiet as when listening to English or Tagalog. They appeared to be more at home with this speaker; perhaps the use of their home vernacular made listening easier.

Such was the pattern of languages typical of the 1953 political campaign throughout the entire country. In other dialect areas, the local speech (Ilocono, Visayan, Pangasinan, Pamanga, etc.) was substituted for Bicol, in cases where candidates were fluent in the home dialect. This was true in a remarkable number of cases. Reportedly, Mr. Magsaysay was able to "crack the solid North" of Mr. Quirino's home bailiwick, by delivering his speeches in that region in fluent Ilocono; the crowds went wild. In cases where the speakers were not fluent linguists, English (because of fifty years of education in that language) was a better means of communication than Tagalog, which has been widely taught in the schools only since 1946, the year of independence. In a few places Spanish served the purpose, though most Filipinos do not like to think that Spanish plays any role in their lives today.

As the world knows, the candidate of the Nacionalista Party won an overwhelming victory. The inaugural address given in Luneta Park, at Manila, December 30, 1953 was given in English. Couched in simple, but dignified words, it re-iterated the President's determination to act with and for the people. Since becoming Vice-President, Mr. Garcia has given several addresses—one of them on Corregidor in Manila Bay, marking the anniversary of that Filipino-American shrine—all of which have been in English. When the Senate convenes, Mr. Cea may speak in either Spanish or English, both languages being sanctioned officially. The chances are the Senators will use English, for *Juan de la Cruz*, if he has been to school, will be able to understand in that language what his representatives are saying.

The new lawmakers may change the language of instruction; there is talk now, that in the early grades at least children should be taught in the dialect of the home. Several experiments are under way in various schools and regions to see if the change would be educationally sound and financially practicable. Study materials in the home vernaculars are almost non-existent.

In the meantime, the American teacher hears the pounding surf of an ocean of English brought in by the rip tide of the early "Thomasites," whose early and honored memory makes teaching in the Philippines a notable experience.

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CIRCULAR SEATING

in the Theatre

by BRUCE B. KLEE

Currently directing theatre activities at the University of Vermont, and with a background of study at Ohio State, Mr. Klee evaluates the arena theatre in the light of practical experience.

In theatre program notes, aimed at enlightening one's audience prior to the performance, a number of arena producers have pointed out such items of interest as "central staging is as old as the Greeks," or "arena theatre affords greater intimacy, hence greater dramatic effect than the customary proscenium staging." The development of arena staging and its artistic principles, as well as the relation of the director, actor, scene designer and audience to this particular form of theatre, come in for their share of discussion. It is this writer's suggestion, however, that the current approach to arena theatre is filled with contradictions and hazy theorizing. It is further suggested that in its present form arena staging has no artistic basis distinct from proscenium theatre.

In no phase of the Greek theatre as we know it was there anything comparable to arena theatre in method or intention. Dithyrambic processions around a circular area present but a vaguely physical parallel. Similarly, in the mature Greek theatre, with its vast, extended semi-circular auditorium, proximity of the audience to the stage or location of the spectators on little more than one side of the acting area was precluded. But the Greek theatre did have something in common with today's arena staging. Four influences on not only the Greeks but on producers at all times continue to exert pressure on arena enthusiasts today: (1) the artistic requisite of aesthetic distance, (2) economic considerations, (3) the necessity for adaptability and (4) the desire for novelty.

Whatever type of stage is being employed, theatre, as art, must concern itself with aesthetic distance. To the Greeks, ever conscious of the actors and poets as countrymen engaged in competition, *Oedipus* was no more "real life" than

All My Sons should be to the arena patron viewing intense father-son conflicts enacted, perhaps, only five feet away. Whatever "greater intimacy" means to the arena director, it can never mean more than physical nearness. And the value of the latter is seriously questioned when one witnesses the transition, for example, of the Circle-in-the-Square production of *The Girl on the Via Flaminia* from an intimate environment to that of a Broadway theatre. As Brooks Atkinson pointed out, the new milieu failed to change any of this production's former values. Not the structural dimensions of the original theatre, apparently, but rather the particular artistic viewpoint of the director and cast accounted for the peculiar qualities of the production.

Attempting to reconcile arena staging with aesthetic distance, some directors find only comedies suitable; at the same time, however, serious drama is judged by others to be equally effective. A common artistic approach is clearly lacking—as well as agreement on action and picturization. Regarding the latter, the need for more movement on the part of the arena actor and the possibility of creating, at any one time, a picture equally effective for all audiences, is in dispute.

In artistic purpose, then, arena theatre, along with the Greek theatre and all other literary theatres, presents nothing new. Its *raison d'être*, on the contrary, is to be found in considerations equally contingent on all public theatres. The first real justification for arena theatre, consequently, is simple economy. Today's producer is in even more of a dilemma than the much-criticised *choregus* whose economies relegated *Oedipus* to second place. Proscenium staging is expensive. Arena staging favors restricted budgets, clearing the way

for productions by a host of semi-professional and amateur groups. The history of the theatre has demonstrated a constant movement toward utilization of all available spectacle. In the main, it has been economy, not artistic iconoclasm which has led a theatre or part of a theatre to relative austerity.

A second factor, a corollary to economy, is the continual demand for adaptability in the theatre. Whether the playhouse has been on a hillside, in an inner yard, in a tennis court or on a Provincetown wharf, adaptability has been a common characteristic of theatre. Wherever theatre is desired today, the producer must follow the path of so many of his predecessors, making use of available facilities. For those with limited funds and/or no playhouse, arena staging is the obvious answer. Any school organization with a hall is now permitted dramatic productions. The activities association of a large insurance company in Columbus (the Farm Bureau), for example, has developed an extensive theatrical program, since they realized the possibility of creating a playhouse in their own lounge.

But in addition to economy and adaptability, arena theatre also follows the historically consist-

ent attempt to bring novelty and external excitement to theatre. The "intimacy" in central staging is not a closeness to the characters and the play—but rather a closeness to the actors and to the backstage titillations of the theatre. Sitting, for all intents and purposes, next to the performers; sensing their presence as they walk down darkened aisles through the audience; viewing their costumes, makeup and techniques close at hand—all of this brings the spectator closer to the physical production, but hardly closer to the spirit or core of the play. At its best this element of arena theatre is a spurious mate to artistic aims.

Having claimed no unique artistic jurisdiction for arena theatre, and then having credited its use to economy, adaptability and desire for novelty, a final evaluation is in order. To belittle arena staging or to infer that it has no place has not been the purpose of these comments. Certainly any method of staging which permits greater theatrical activity should not only be welcomed but also encouraged. At the same time, however, integrity requires that arena theatre be accepted on a realistic basis, for what it is. Loosely formulated theories of the art of arena staging contributes little to a clear conception of theatre today.

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READINGS ON RECORDS

A Challenge

By RAYMOND L. IRVIN

Head, Department of Oral Interpretation
Syracuse University

Recently, over Radio Station WQXR, I heard a recording of a prominent actor reading Browning's *My Last Duchess*. The reading began elegantly. The actor's voice was beautiful, and he maintained an admirable balance between metre and sense. But, as he progressed, it became increasingly apparent that he had no clear understanding of what he was reading. His

"and I choose

Never to stoop."

and

"Nay, we'll go

Together down, sir."

were especially inaccurate.

When he had finished, I got out the first Dartmouth Recording Project record and played the Earl Wynn reading of the same poem. I think the difference, in favor of Mr. Wynn's interpretation, would have been obvious to almost anyone.

This experience brought forcibly to my mind a thought that has long been lingering there: How unfortunate it is that, when poetry is to be read, the best readers of poetry are not employed to do the reading.

Which is not to say that no actors or writers read well. John Carradine, Osbert and Edith Sitwell, Katherine Anne Porter, John Guildud, Dylan Thomas, and Lynn Fontanne are among those who do. But the more one listens to the new recordings of poetry made by actors and authors, the more he is impressed by the fact that most of the readers are not up to their tasks. And why should they be? We should no more expect a poet skillfully to read his works aloud than we should expect a playwright skillfully to act in his plays. As for the actors, most of them simply do not have the cultural background that one needs to be a good oral

interpreter. This of course is not a slighting observation, but it is a fact. Their professional assets are good vocal and physical equipment, a sensitivity to emotion, and responsiveness to a director.

Now it is quite understandable why actors and authors are employed to record poetry. The actors are employed because they are well-known, and whether or not they are the most qualified people for the job is of no commercial importance.*

A final comment about using famous actors to read poetry is that their very fame is a distraction. Too often the selection seems a mere vehicle for the display of a film personality we "all know". If this personality were associated in our minds with poetry reading, it would not distract us. But the fame the actor has is fame he has acquired elsewhere. In no other performing art do we find performers chosen for their excellence in a different field.

I believe the poets are employed for two reasons: first, because there is public curiosity over how they will sound, and second, because it is assumed, vulgarly, I think, that the author of a poem "should" know how to read it. Perhaps it is also assumed that a record of a given poet's voice is "important". No doubt it is, historically, but if recorded poems are going to be accepted as an art form, this sort of importance should yield to the aesthetic importance of insuring that the poem is well interpreted.

I do not believe, however, that recorded poems will ever be accepted as an art form, for the reasons I have stated above. It is unlikely that the producers of records could be persuaded to

* One finds this spectacularly true of the actors in many radio plays, especially movie actors. Their dismal interpretations, their thin, raucous or uncultivated speech, their total inability to read in dialect, all are irrelevant to the main consideration—their publicized "personalities."

change their ways and use qualified readers as performers. And this being the situation, I feel that most of the records available for use as supplements to teaching interpretation are of very little value, nor can we look forward to future recordings being any better.

I believe a partial solution to the problem lies in the admirable project of Professor Mouat of

San Jose State College.† By availing himself of this tape recording exchange service, a teacher can acquire a library of readings far more useful, I should think, than all but a few of the things recording companies put out, or are likely to put out.

† See *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, February 1954 p. 108.

EDITORIAL: Reactions of Our Readers

Either grippers don't write, or our readers must like Today's Speech pretty well. "The S BOMB article by Robert West is particularly good," writes P. W. Rawley, one of our advertisers, "but the article on McCarthy by Barnett Baskerville is one of the best I have ever read — except that he has a tendency to pull his punches. What is needed is a rough and tumble operator to take this party to the mat and remove a national disgrace from our political life." And from Louisa Dalcher, editorial department of *The Reporter*, "I read the two studies of demagoguery and think you are doing a very good service to your readers."

"Certainly there is a crying need for such a publication as Today's Speech," writes Richard E. Beeler, Advertising Manager of the *Altoona Mirror*. "No doubt there are many men in Altoona like myself who are hungry for guidance along these lines."

From Colonel Charles Van Way, Jr., Chief, Manpower Branch, United States Army: "My personal reaction is favorable, on the whole. It is my feeling, however, that you will have difficulty in filling four issues a year with the kind of material that will attract enough readers to support your publication. Perhaps you could extend your coverage in the direction of conference and group discussion techniques and philosophy, as is done in your article in the sample issue. General Semantics offers an additional area. Your excursion into the theatre, while not of interest to me personally, would, I believe, attract readers. In any case, an effort might well be made to increase the popular appeal of the magazine."

When the April, 1954, issue of Today's Speech was circulated among the staff of the Industrial College of the U. S. Armed Forces, the following comments were made by six of the instructors:

"As an amateur seeking the solution to public speaking, self expression, etc., I approve of this

publication and recommend having it in the school."

"Generally excellent, well written, convincing."

"An interesting publication. The article on the theatre is good reading but not closely related to the purpose of the magazine. Suggest title "Public Speaking" instead of "Today's Speech." People shy away from reading speeches. Do not feel this title does justice to the subject."

"I think this publication would be worth its cost many times to the College, if we advertised it — this, during the Public Speaking instruction — tell them in some way about it as well as other sources on the subject."

"Reference the magazine "Today's Speech"— Being a new magazine, it appears to be unrestrained in its composition. The variety is refreshing and vigorous. It looks like a good reference for Public Speaking students. Recommend the College subscribe for one year; then it to be evaluated at that time."

"*Today's Speech* is a fine quarterly. It will be a welcome addition to our library. In presenting current trends in public speaking, it provides us with the changes that are developing as they occur. We have many excellent books on public speaking, but this is the first quarterly that has come to my attention. Its life and freshness will create added interest in public speaking."

And from Paul D. Holtzman, Executive Secretary to the SAES: "Warm congratulations on Vol. II No. 3. I read it and have shown it with pride. This comes from one of the sceptics."

Your Editor, of course, is always glad to receive letters such as these. He is also glad to get letters suggesting changes that ought to be made. And, finally, he welcomes articles that have something sensible and practical to say—including brief experience pieces from one and all on "My Toughest Speech Problem—and How I Licked It."

FUNCTIONS OF THE ORATOR

"I wish there were some great orator who could go about and make men drunk with this spirit of self-sacrifice. I wish there were some man whose tongue might every day carry abroad the golden accents of the creative age in which we were born a nation; accents which would ring like tones of reassurance around the whole circle of the globe, so that America might again have the distinction of showing men the way, the certain way, of achievement and of confident hope."

— Woodrow Wilson, in an address delivered on the 100th anniversary of the birth of Robert E. Lee.

"When public bodies are to be addressed on momentous occasions, when great interests are at stake and strong passions excited, nothing is valuable in speech further than it is connected with high intellectual and moral endowments. Clearness, force, and earnestness are the qualities which produce conviction. True eloquence, indeed, does not consist in speech. It cannot be brought from afar. Learning and labour may toil for it, but they will toil in vain. Words and phrases may be marshaled in every way, but they cannot compass it. It must exist in the man, in the subject, and in the occasion. Affected passion, intense expression, the pomp of declamation, all may aspire after it — they cannot reach it. It comes, if it comes at all, like the outbreking of a fountain from the earth, or the bursting forth of volcanic fires, with spontaneous, original, native force."

— Daniel Webster

ROLES THE ORATOR MAY PLAY:

1. The Leader: forms and directs public opinion
2. The Symbol: defines and illustrates public sentiment
3. The Demagogue: exploits public feeling
4. The Entertainer: stimulates and delights audiences
5. The Philosopher: lays basis for independent thinking
6. The Teacher: informs understanding and directs thought
7. The Interpreter: Rationalizes existing beliefs

An orator may be one or several of these on occasion.

He may be several at once to different groups.

He may never fully understand his own function.

His role may never be fully understood by his audience.

He unifies, uplifts, directs, inspires.

"Whether men shall pursue an immediate want or a remote one, whether they shall accept the satisfaction of a high idealistic desire or of a low material one, has always been, and so long as this planet supports human life will continue to be, dependent in part on how vividly and impellingly these alternates are revealed to them by leaders, thinkers, writers, and speakers."

—W. Norwood Brigrance

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